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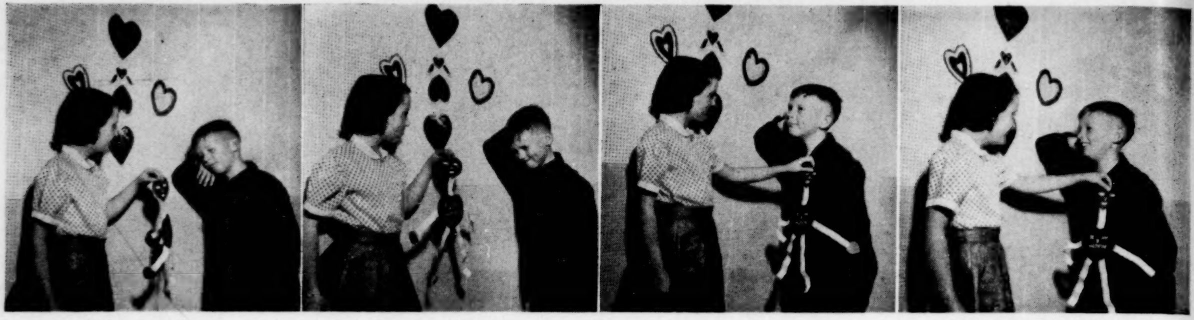
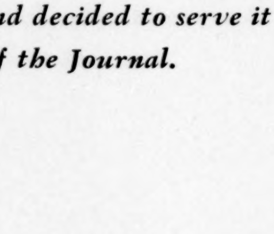


Photo by Marty Haroutunian

Our cover girl and boy this month, Rosemary Smith of the St. Francis DeSales School in Charlestown, Mass. and Bobby Badger of the Squantum School in Quincy, Mass. seem to be appreciating St. Valentine's day to its fullest. Although they were both a little shy at first, the spirit of the day gradually gained momentum until Rosemary presented her valentine to Bobby, candidly caught by the Journal camera. We felt quite fortunate to capture this little slice of life and decided to serve it to our readers between the covers of the Journal.



JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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Trends of Higher Education

By Samuel Miller Brownell

These are days when, as a Nation, we perceive more clearly day by day the close relationship of trained citizenry to the security of a free Nation and the increasing importance of well-prepared manpower to our leadership role in a world community. Under the circumstances, a consideration of some of the functions of higher education may be in order to see what lies ahead for higher education.

The term "higher education" has had different meanings during the course of our history. In the early days of America, it meant theological training. In 1754, President Clapp of Yale defined higher education in those terms when he said: "Colleges are *Societies of Ministers,* for training up Persons for the Work of the Ministry." By and large, colonial colleges were founded for the same purpose, that of providing a trained ministry. Their curriculums were philosophical and theoretical. Most of the students were from 16 to 20 years old, and some evidence indicates that the level of instruction was probably equivalent to that of the last two years of a modern high school and the first two years of a present-day liberal arts college. A historian of education gives some insight into what went on at Harvard in 1800 when he writes:

> "The course was four years in length, and all students studied the same subjects. The first three years were given largely to the so-called 'Oriental languages'—Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. In addition, Freshmen studied arithmetic; Sophomores, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry; and Juniors, natural (book) science; and all were given much training in oratory, and some general history was added. The Senior year was given mainly to ethics, philosophy, and Christian evidences."

Such statements as this suggest the changes that have taken place in higher education during the last century and a half. Today, we think of higher education as that which includes not only classical and liberal studies but also scientific and practical education as well. And, of course, the change in concept has developed over the years with the changing and growing needs of our society. The expanding needs for scientists—both natural and social—for artists, agriculturalists, home economists, teachers, nurses, and technologists in many fields, have shown the need for extended study beyond high school in these and other areas. As a consequence, higher education in 1954 may be defined as education following the secondary school which provides general cultural, occupational, professional and technical, and adult education either in a composite or in a specialized institution.

No longer is higher education restricted to training for the ministry, for modern universities include many colleges, serving many interests other than the theological. A glance at the curriculums of a modern State university such as the University of Illinois indicates the degree to which higher education has become highly specialized and organized. The University of Illinois has colleges of Dentistry, Fine and Applied Arts, Liberal Arts and Sciences, Engineering, Medicine, Veterinary Medicine, Agriculture, Law, Pharmacy, Commerce and Business Administration, and Education. Furthermore, it maintains schools of Journalism, of Communications, of Social Work, of Physical Education, and an Institute of Aviation.

The variety of course work within a particular school or college is suggested by the number of separate curriculums, each with a wide variety of courses. For instance, the College of Engineering of the University of Illinois has courses of study in the following Engineering specialties: Aeronautical, Agricultural, Chemical, Civil, Electrical, General, Engineering Physics, Industrial, Mechanical, Metallurgical, Mining, and Sanitary Engineering.

Paralleling these developments in the variety of work offered has been a tremendous expansion in the numbers of those attending institutions of higher education. Only the sketchiest data regarding college enrollment in the early 19th Century exists, but by 1890 only 156,756 students were enrolled as college residents or 3 percent of the population of college age. By 1950, the figure had risen to 2,659,021. In 1954, it was 2,467,000, a quarter of the total college age population. Current estimates suggest that by 1970, we shall have approximately 4,900,000 students in college.

Today critics of higher education frequently complain that it is overly utilitarian. Some act as if this were a new development, and a bad one at that. But this is not a new concern. The contemporary emphasis has been echoed through the centuries. Sir Francis Bacon's definition of knowledge three and a half centuries ago in his *The Advancement of Learning* made the point eloquently. Following his criticisms of the errors of learning—and these are as pertinent today as they were when they were published—he insists that knowledge is not a courtesan for pleasure and vanity, nor a bondwoman to acquire gain for her master's use, but a spouse, for generation, fruit and comfort. The metaphor is apt; it stresses the usefulness of knowledge—a usefulness which Thomas Huxley re-emphasized in his well-known comparison of science—not to a fairy godmother, but to an alpine peasant woman striding through a high mountain pass knitting socks.

Colleges to train ministers were established years ago to meet a practical need. The subjects studied were practical necessities for the vocational competence of students. Over the centuries higher education has developed because the practical needs of society demand persons in many fields with preparation beyond what they could gain below the college level.

It is well to keep these emphases in mind in considering the functions of higher education in America today, for learning is vain affectation if it is not productive of greater understanding, greater insight, *and* greater competence.

Certainly *the first function of higher education is the preservation of knowledge and its transmission from generation to generation.* This does not mean a mere collection and hoarding of information. It means a gathering for fruitful use, because knowledge should make living more significant, more meaningful, and more pleasant. And because curiosity is one of our common urges, we are impelled inexorably to continue to add to our knowledge.

But for the complexity of knowledge, its preservation and transmission would seem a simple and a merely repetitive exercise. The fact is, there is so much knowledge that no one person can acquire all current, let alone past knowledge, in one lifetime. One large university, for example, offers 3,500 different courses. Someone has calculated that to complete these would take one student 325 years. Moreover, there are millions of new bits and pieces of information being added to our store of knowledge each year. Some is elementary. Some is exceedingly complex.

Faced with the responsibility of both preserving *and* passing on knowledge, those engaged in higher education must decide not only *how much* but also *which* knowledge shall be preserved, which shall be taught—in what sequence and with what emphasis. Here, we enter the realm of values, for our values—or standards—determine what is selected and the relative importance of what is selected.

The efforts of so many faculties to determine where the general lines of emphasis shall be drawn attest to the heartening progress being made in meeting the problem. One of the bright glories of American education is this effort—on many campuses and in various areas of knowledge—to resolve the problems of values and emphases in higher education. College faculties, college students, college alumni face this challenge continuously. Each, from his own perspective, has an important contribution to make which will keep higher education true to its purpose of preserving and transmitting knowledge that contributes to upholding and advancing those values which differentiate living from mere existence, and which advance the progress of the individual and of mankind.

The variation in student interests and abilities constitutes another problem in the preservation and transmission of knowledge. It is not enough for the teacher to seek and organize the knowledge which he and his colleagues believe is of most importance. The student himself plays an important part in what is learned, through his choice of curriculum, his elective choices within a curriculum, and by his selection of what he learns from the courses in which he is enrolled. The feast of knowledge placed before every undergraduate who matriculates at a college or university makes it obvious that the student who does not early and wisely select the areas in which he wishes to concentrate runs the risk of gorging himself with too many delicacies or starving because he does not get a well-balanced education diet.

More is involved than simply a matter of choice on the part of the student, for each individual has motivations and purposes which differ. The education a student gets depends far less on the knowledge to which he is exposed than it does on his interest, his ability, and the context in which he studies. For example, one student may be studying French because he is preparing to teach it, or because he wishes to serve as a translator in an American mission abroad, or perhaps because he wishes to learn to write business letters for an export-import firm. Another may be studying the same language in the same class to enlarge his understanding of the French, their history, and their civilization, perhaps because he is interested in French impressionist painters. A third person in that same class may be studying French because of a particular language requirement. He may hate every minute in class and the hours he must spend on irregular verbs because he has little interest in French and feels that the time he spends on it could more profitably be spent on something of more interest and significance. What each one gets from the same class attendance is very different, not because of the teacher or the work assigned, but because of the student himself.

Science, mathematics, literature, history, ethics, logic, or any other study may illustrate the point that there is little virtue in higher education, in any curriculum, or in any course *per se*. On the other hand, the enthusiasm and teaching skill of the instructor and the way he uses his materials vitally affect the student and the values he derives from the study of a particular field. In the same way, the student's own previous experience and his motivations largely determine the results of his work.

It is clear, then, that the real significance of higher education, when we consider the preservation and transmission of knowledge, lies in what happens when the individual and higher education come to-

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Educational Television in New England

By Claude M. Fuess

The recent opening of the new Channel 2 television station, WGBH-TV, in the Blue Hills of Milton, marks a very significant stage in the evolution of popular education in Massachusetts—possibly as important as that initiated by Horace Mann in the 1830's. Three years ago the FCC set aside 242 television channels throughout the country—approximately one out of every ten—for strictly educational and non-profit purposes. Through the far-sightedness and initiative of the Lowell Institute, one of these was allotted to the Boston area, and others are in the process of assignment to different sections of New England. Today anybody with a television set, no matter what the make, can, without adding any new gadget, get Channel 2 on the air. The station operates without "commercials" of any kind, and cannot be used for political or partisan purposes. Because it is the first in New England, it is being studied by experts with critical ears and eyes, and its policies are likely to establish policies and procedures for those stations which follow.

From the time, about a decade ago, when it first began to make itself felt as an advertising medium, commercial television has occasionally presented programs which could fairly be described as educational in character. Now and then, in the midst of the vulgarity and banality which advertising experts seem to think Americans prefer, has appeared a panel discussion of a play or a concert with recognizable cultural merit. The Town Meeting of the Air is a fine example of high level presentation. And obviously the political conventions of 1952 and the McCarthy-Army hearings, although not without monotony, have provided the average citizen with material for conversation and have affected public opinion.

But television stations maintained for profit must transmit, even to the extreme limits of good taste, whatever material advertisers desire. Their programs, therefore, have had a wide range in dignity, propriety, and even decency. All kinds of men, women and children have to be considered, and the sponsors naturally put out over the air what they think will attract customers..

The commercial stations, with their immense resources in money and personnel, can, if they wish to do so, present educational programs on a scale and at an expense which stations like Channel 2 cannot afford. It will be virtually impossible for any educational station to offer a performance of *Hamlet* with star actors in the cast. The cost would be prohibitive.

Indeed Channel 2 does not expect to compete in many respects with WEEI or WBZ, New England's other TV stations. Much of its early programming has necessarily been experimental, and the directors have been obliged to feel their way. They may not have been altogether successful in their well-intentioned attempts to lure children away from their familiar twilight hour programs, their lone rangers, their gangsters, and their slapstick comedy. The thousands of friends who contributed their money to start Channel 2 must not expect too much all at once.

Moreover, the function of television as an instrument of formal education in the schools has yet to be

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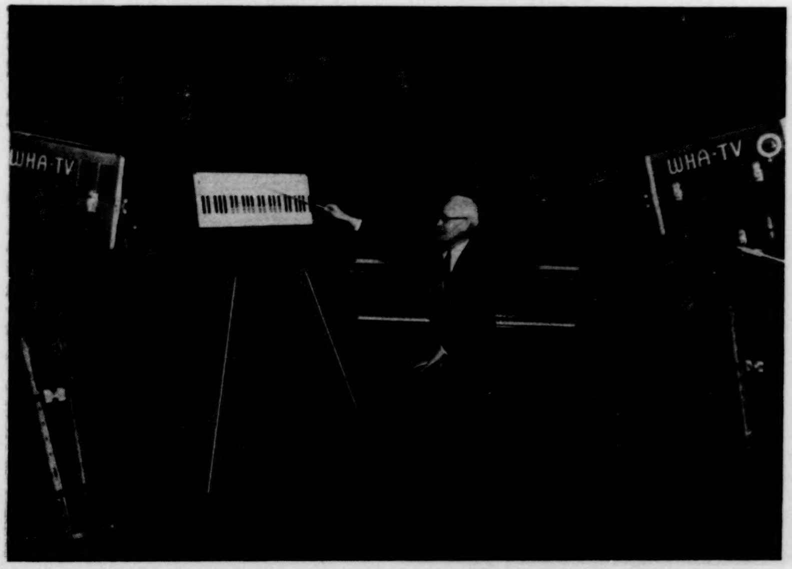


Within a year, it is hoped that educational television will cover a myriad of subjects attracting over a million people of all age levels.

Frontier Planning for Recreation

By Donald Minnegan

America's New Frontier

In 1854 America had many frontier communities. Today, a century later, America's increasing millions and America's moving millions are creating new frontiers with thousands of new communities and radically changed old communities.

The Need for Pioneer Planners

America's growing and moving population has created tremendous problems in terms of human needs and public services. Thus crucial new frontiers in thinking and planning have opened up.

At this moment in history, school people have an unparalleled community leadership opportunity. Communities need planners with a frontier approach to community problems, leaders who will secure facts in order to know, so that pre-vision may be exercised, and so that adequate, timely, efficient and economical service provisions will be made.

The Education — Recreation Partnership

School people, now primarily concerned with the enormous task of providing for youth's educational needs, are increasingly involved with closely related community services and agencies. For example; just as the tens of thousands of youth must be provided with adequate educational opportunities now and in the future, so must these youths also be provided with adequate opportunities for their leisure time activities, in order to guarantee good health, good behavior, sound minds and bodies, all so essential to happy, productive citizenship.

The opportunity to help communities in developing desirable recreation patterns will vary because communities differ; they may be entirely new or only slightly changed old areas. They differ too in the degree to which various provisions have already been set up; they may be now planning facilities or the facilities may already be completed.

Basically, community people can elect to proceed along one of two general patterns in providing for public recreation.

1. Education and Recreation can each go separate ways in developing facilities, programs, etc.
2. Education and Recreation can become close partners and cooperate in joint action.

The joint action plan seems preferable in terms of economical and efficient community service.

The degree to which the principles of joint action can be used will vary, but in all kinds of situations many of the ideas can be used as forces for better community living.

All school people—teachers, principals, supervisors, and board members—will find important roles to play in developing the partnership concept; they will find exciting, dramatic ways of being useful to the community youth and parents.

Educators can lead the way in helping communities to make these choices with which they must live for a long time, choices which will greatly affect the satisfaction of living in a particular community.

This challenge to help people solve their recreation needs in the most economical and efficient way has captured the interest of millions of citizens in thou-

Citizen participation is an integral part of the recreational program in this community.

sands of American communities. The terrific interest in sports for youth is one small part of this growing concern. The people are concerned with this great challenge.

One of the most recent and extensive recreation surveys in the East, that of Baltimore County—surrounding Baltimore City, Maryland — spotlights the concern of its citizens for recreation, develops the dual-use concept, and indicates the role of education in the plan.

The first five of its eleven major recommendations are especially significant. They are:

1. *Primary emphasis should be placed* upon the development of public recreation facilities and programs on the basis of the actual needs of the smallest local units, namely, *the Neighborhoods.*

2. *The School-Recreation Center, providing in one unit the facilities for both education and recreation, should be adopted, as set forth in this report, as the most practical, economical means for satisfactory and durable development of public recreation facilities and programs on the Local, Neighborhood and Community level.*

3. There shall be prompt establishment of the committees, representing the County Boards of Education and Recreation, (1) on finance, (2) site selection, (3) planning of buildings and grounds, operation and maintenance, (4) and program, as set forth in this Report and essential to the proper development and operation of the School-Recreation Center.

4. Every effort should be made to acquire adequate acreage for all School-Recreation Center sites before housing developments in existing or potential communities or neighborhoods have progressed to the building stage.

5. Active participation should be promptly sought by a greater number of volunteers, parents and other citizens, in the affairs of the Recreation Councils serving their neighborhoods.

Basic Recreation Philosophy

Prior to analysis of these recommendations, a few key concepts of recreation should be reviewed.

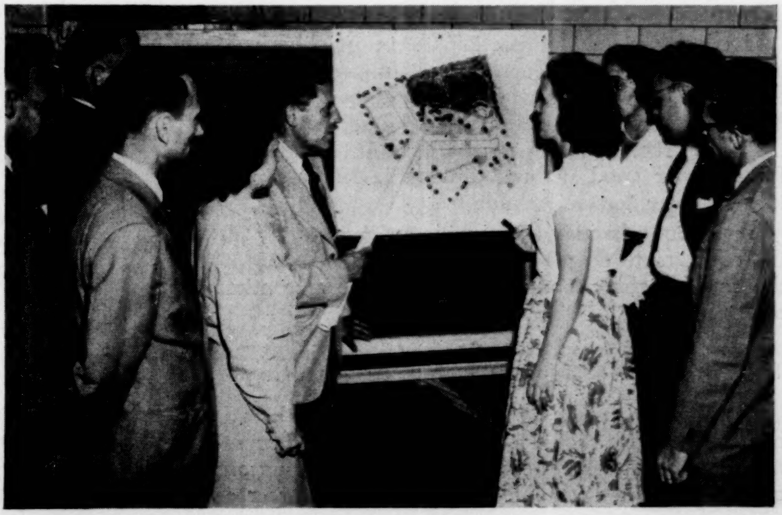
1. The best use of leisure time by all people is the goal of every good recreation program.
2. How the leisure time is used determines to a large extent the kind of citizen produced.
3. Skills, insights, and resources must be developed for every child in order to foster satisfactory use of leisure time now and throughout life. An individual's interest is the factor which will determine his selection of and participation in an activity, whether good or bad. *The value of recreation to an individual will be determined by the skills possessed, multiplied by the opportunities available to use them.*

   If boys are to play baseball, and to continue to play, they must be taught the SKILLS, and provided with an OPPORTUNITY to play.

   The challenge to develop the skills and to provide opportunities for participation, thus whetting the appetite of youth for wholesome, constructive, and lasting leisure time activities is of tremendous significance to educators, recreation people, and all citizens.
4. Educators should provide a school program in education for leisure time activities. They have a basic responsibility for the *development* of the individual's skills, insights, and resources for leisure time activities. Recreation people must provide *opportunities* to use and enjoy these skills, insights, and resources.

   Thus, *the two programs, education and recreation are complementary,* in this vital problem of providing for the leisure time activities of children. Hence the two programs must be closely integrated.

   In this concept, there are tremendous implications for frontier thinking and planning, especially for elementary teachers.



Skills for leisure time activity must be developed in the school's educational program.

It is nigh impossible to guarantee a sound basis for the child's wise use of leisure time unless the elementary classroom teacher works toward the fulfillment of this pioneer concept.

With this basic philosophy in mind, it will be noted that the first five recommendations of the Baltimore County Survey are of special importance to this frontier thinking.

The Neighborhood, Unit of Primary Importance for Recreation Planning

The best places where a child can *develop skills* and *enjoy opportunities* to *use education for leisure time* are in the schools, the homes, and the neighborhoods. The most important people are the teachers, the parents, and the recreation leaders.

Hence it is only natural that *Recommendation 1* emphasizes that the neighborhood is the unit of primary importance in recreation planning.

A neighborhood may be broadly defined as a natural community unit containing an elementary school, churches, one or more shopping centers, playgrounds, etc. Generally speaking, the population of a neighborhood will range from 3,000 to 7,000 people.

This recommendation implies many things – the neighborhood is the new focus of American living.

People are going back to neighborhood living. Many people have a deep desire for living in small communities with neighbors and dislike living in large communities with strangers.

People and their children like fresh air and open spaces. They like to be within walking distance of the natural gathering places—the church, the school, the ball field, the swimming pool—where people meet, work, play, and plan together as neighbors.

People in neighborhoods have a real interest in and concern about recreation and other services which influence the quality of living for their families.

In such an atmosphere the educator, through contacts can come to know parents and children and help to guide action on facilities and programs.

If educators do not participate in neighborhood life people may not recognize and utilize their valuable help and look elsewhere for guidance. This can be detrimental because the powerful recreation enthusiasms, such as junior baseball, can be instruments for harm or good without diplomatic leadership of those who understand children.

Recreation planning opens wide an opportunity for the educator to do pioneer thinking and planning in the new neighborhood-minded community frontiers of America.

The Dual Purpose Education — Recreation Center

If programs are to be developed, functional, economical facilities should be provided. Hence, *Recommendation 2,* stresses the concept of the dual-purpose center, the idea that one facility, the school-recreation center, should serve as the basic facility for both education and recreation.

In light of the greater number of schools yet to be built this idea is of great importance.

The basic idea applies to elementary, junior-high and senior-high school facilities. Naturally the unit serving the larger areas, such as the high school, would have greater space and more facilities. The following explanation will aid in developing an understanding of the dual-use concept as it applies to the Neighborhood-Elementary-School-Recreation Center. (The standards are general and may be adapted to each situation.)

A Neighborhood School

WHAT IS IT?

It is the focal point for education, recreation and all related activities for the people in the Neighborhood it is designed to serve. It places special emphasis on facilities for children, ages 5-14. It implies the optimum use of public facilities for both the development and the application of an individual's skills, insights and resources through education and recreation.

It provides indoor and outdoor spaces and facilities for the curricular and extra-curricular program of an elementary school, as well as for the traditionally separate public recreation facilities including: tot lot, children's playground, junior sport fields, small park area, gymnasium, auditorium, meeting rooms, etc. It combines all of these facilities in such a way that costly duplication is avoided.

WHERE SHOULD IT BE?

It is located to serve from 3,000 to 7,000 people living within a radius of approximately one-half mile, or within safe walking distance for children, ages 5-14.

WHAT SIZE?

The recommended size is 20 acres. The specific size of the site will be determined by the following factors:

The number and predominant age groups of the people the Center is designed to serve.

The number of classrooms in the school.

The density of population and types of homes in the neighborhood.

Distance of the Center from the homes.

Topography and shape of the site.

Availability of other public facilities for recreation, as well as those provided by voluntary agencies and private and commercial enterprises.

Such a Center is the result of careful planning for multi-purpose use and thus the taxpayers buy the maximum education and recreation benefits.

It is good business. It is good for education. It is good for recreation.

Policy Action on Board Level

High level authorities must develop favorable policies if the above indicated programs and facilities are to materialize.

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Why Teach Vocabulary in the Social Studies?

By Richard Chambers

The educational literature of today indicates many methods by which teachers may instruct children in the Social Studies. Generally, all methods seem to fall into two broad categories, namely, the subject-matter approach and the experiences-of-children approach. Regardless of the methodology employed, children must, to a greater or lesser degree, engage in the activity of reading to obtain necessary information.

A pre-requisite for reading with understanding is an adequate knowledge of word meaning. This is not at all peculiar to reading in the Social Studies or reading in any of the content subjects. Yet a frightening number of children at the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade levels are not at all familiar with the vocabulary used in the most common Social Studies textbooks in use at the present time. A startling statement perhaps, but one with evidence to defend it.[1]

Two recent studies presented the original proof for this above statement. Both were concerned with diagnostic testing of social studies vocabulary and differed primarily in the method by which they measured performance. One measured by the category-association method[2] while the other[3] tested words in their contextual settings. Each, nevertheless, presented the similar conclusion that although there is an increase in performance between grades, the actual knowledge evidenced was *not* adequate to insure the mastery of social studies concepts and contents.

Do Boys or Girls Do Better in Social Studies Vocabulary?

There is evidence that many boys have more difficulty in learning to read than do girls.[4] Certainly a high degree of relationship exists between the possession of a meaningful vocabulary and successful reading ability. Therefore, it seems safe to assume that likewise, boys may have more difficulty in reading vocabulary than do girls. Yet boys far exceed girls in the understanding of social studies vocabulary. Also, as might be expected, the two sexes differ in the type of words known. For example, words such as *armistice, aviator, commander, fleet, kayak, schooner* and *troop* were correctly identified by boys but not by girls. Likewise, words as *amethyst, cantaloupe, cherries, emerald, librarian, opal* and *prince* were correctly responded to by girls and not by boys.

Do A High I.Q., and General Reading Ability Insure An Equally High Understanding of Social Studies Vocabulary?

The answer to the above question is briefly, "Yes". Children with high intelligence quotients were found to perform at a high level in social studies vocabulary while those with lower I. Q.'s evidenced poorer performance. The resulting scores from an outstanding general reading vocabulary test[5] of known high validity and the Social Studies Vocabulary Tests showed a high degree of correlation which would indicate that children can be expected to perform at equal levels on the two types of tests.

Which is the Better Measure of Social Studies Vocabulary?

This question may also be stated as the category vs. the context type of social studies vocabulary testing. Regardless of the terminology used the answer remains the same, that is that both types measure the understanding of the social studies vocabulary equally well. For those with a flair for statistics, the coefficient of correlation between the two distinct methods of testing is .84, a high positive correlation showing a marked relationship. This has a definite implication for teachers in that it provides an opportunity for a variety in testing procedures with the assurance that either type will measure similar knowledge.

Is the Problem Worthy of the Attention of Teachers?

When a large percentage of an extensive sampling of children fails to correctly associate and identify words such as *admiral, ballot, cultivate, fertile, inland, merchant, nation, petroleum, bill, democracy, election* and *strait* in grade four; *census, exporter, flax, gap, navigation, rebel, upstream, antarctic, armistice, emperor, invader* and *surveyor* in grade five; and *crest, geyser, hemisphere, kerosene, metropolis, blockhouse, cove, dunes, isthmus, lagoon, levee, longitude, mesa, parallels* and *suburb* in grade six, then it seems that the problem must be recognized by classroom teachers and correlative measures taken to remedy it. The reasons for the misconceptions of children fall into four general areas:

1. The wrong association of ideas
2. Reading errors of configuration and perception
3. Poor reading comprehension
4. Incorrect connotation

What Precautions may Teachers take to Overcome this Inadequacy in their Pupils?

First and foremost, teachers must become aware of the vocabulary problems peculiar to social studies and realize that a meaningful vocabulary is necessary for

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Self-Government in School

By Roger C. Fenn

The title might have been *Student Government in School* because this article will describe a Student Government which has operated successfully for twenty years in a school for ninety boys, up to fourteen years in age. However, such a title would not have reached the basic motive which the school had in mind when the government was first set up. The title STUDENT GOVERNMENT suggests merely a government manned by a selected few who regulate the conduct of the many. On the other hand, the title SELF GOVERNMENT suggests that every individual pupil plays a more active part, feels a greater obligation to join in making the rules, and learns to govern himself. Such a lesson in citizenship and character building is one of the most valuable a school can teach.

All kinds of student governments have been devised for schools, and there is no doubt that other kinds will work as well as the one described on these pages. The success of such a project will depend entirely on the active support it receives from the student officers and the faculty.

The great advantage of this particular pattern is that it is a simplified replica of the Federal Government in Washington, functioning in essentially the same way. No child who has participated in this government in his school ever needs to read a book on Civics to understand the elementary principles of our national government,—he has lived with them and made them operate.

The plan is to set up three Branches of equal importance, Executive, Legislative and Judicial, choosing the officers in the same manner as in Washington. It works best if the Executive is set up first. The whole school participates by forming several groups, each around its "favorite sons" for President and Vice President. It is best if only two groups exist by election time, so that the President, when he is finally placed in office, will have a clear majority behind him. Each group may assume a party name, appoint a Campaign Manager, and employ as much advertising and bally-hoo as is considered desirable by the faculty. If the supreme authority of the school is not very definitely felt at this point, as everywhere else in the government, the exuberance of youth will quickly bury the nobler purposes under a riotous blanket of childish clowning or squabbling, neither of which has any place in connection with the government. The two candidates in each party should be given equal opportunities to make formal campaign speeches, introduced by their managers, and already we see one of the great benefits of a true *student* government—the experience for a youngster of having a very real purpose to talk in a public meeting and to present his case in the most convincing manner.

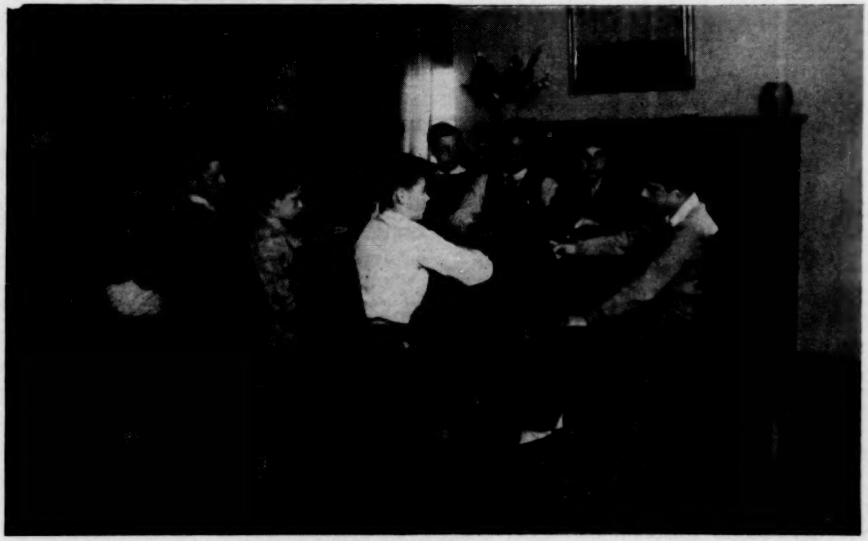
An election by printed and secret ballot, all operated impartially by the non-voting teachers, will determine the President and Vice President, who may then be formally in augurated. The President will then appoint his Cabinet. His Secretary of State will keep the minutes of Cabinet meetings and have such responsibilities as arranging athletic contests with other schools. His Secretary of the Treasury will collect the taxes and pay the bills or make gifts to charities as directed by the Legislature. The Secretary of Defense will raise and lower the flag each day. The Attorney General will prosecute cases of law-breaking before the court. The Secretary of Labor will carry out the sentences,—so many hours of "hard labor" on the tennis courts or blackboards. The Secretary of the Interior will be the head usher at school assemblies, appointing his own assistants, like the other secretaries, according to need. The Secretary of Commerce will be head clerk in the school store or "tuck shop." The Postmaster General will distribute the daily mail from the school office. These are suggestions which have been found very practical in actual operation, but the cabinet duties will naturally vary according to local conditions.

The Judicial Branch will consist of a Supreme Court, also appointed by the President. Since Cabinet officers and judges must all come from the oldest pupils, the number must not be too large. Nine judges may be too many for a small school, but three are advisable if possible. Working under them will be a Chief of Police, perhaps the most difficult job in the entire government, requiring a boy of extreme tact and good judgment, a conscientious but human individual who is held in high esteem by the student body. He must not be over-zealous and handcuff-happy in making arrests for minor technical offenses, nor can he refrain from arresting even important personages when the case is obvious or serious. He cannot play favorites. The acid test of a good policeman comes when he inadvertently gets caught breaking a law himself, as any boy will. If the crowd does not shout, "Off with his head!", he has been a good man.

While these appointments are being made, work can be begun, at least in the lower grades, on the election of representatives to the Legislature. Each classroom may be regarded as equivalent to one of the states in the U.S.A., electing one or two Senators from each room and one Representative for each five or ten members of the class. A Senate of six or a dozen members and a House of twenty-five or thirty are appropriate and not too unwieldy to give efficient service. The Vice President will preside over the Senate and the House will elect a Speaker, but it is a very rare Speaker who can handle a lively discussion in a body of over thirty contemporaries, even with a teacher present as Faculty Adviser. When the top class last of all has elected its Senators and Representatives from those members not already appointed to other posts by the President, the wheels of government may begin to turn.

The first act of the Senate, after the appointment of a clerk with good penmanship to keep the minutes of the meetings, should be the approval of all appointments by the President. This may result in some preliminary shifting of cabinet officers and even cause the resignation of some legislators to fill the cabinet posts. It will take a little time and manipulating, but it will teach, as no book on Civics can do, the basic principle of checks and balances which one branch of our government has on another.

A few pieces of advice, based on twenty years of actual and successful experience with just such a Student Government, may be helpful at this point.



Self-government in the schools is the predecessor to democratic maturity.

Have a special commission of the abler students write a Constitution as a basis from which to work, describing the format of the government and outlining briefly the duties involved. Using the U.S. Constitution as a guide, and discarding about 80% of the verbiage, excellent results can be set down on three or four pages. Don't try to foresee and avoid all possible contingencies by the usual legal phraseology, but stick to bare essentials and simple language. When the inevitable arguments later arise over some spot too briefly covered, then the Supreme Court can be asked to interpret and clarify. Amendments can always be written in.

Have a Faculty Adviser present with every meeting of every government body, not to "run the meeting" but to teach parliamentary procedure, to maintain an atmosphere of formal dignity, to answer inevitable questions, and to help keep the discussions from wandering off the subject.

Have frequent informal conferences between each adviser and the student leader of his branch of the government. The simple enactment of a law, for example, will require more planning and efficiency than is ever present in a child. A proposed bill should be discussed by the citizens in the classroom, who should instruct their representatives how to vote. When a bill has passed the House, it should be accurately recorded in the minutes and given in writing to the Senate for passage. After passing the Senate it should be handed in writing to the President for his signature and then be posted where the citizens will be sure to see it. In case the bill is defeated or amended in the Senate, a Joint Committee may have to be set up to seek a compromise for both Houses to consider.

What kind of laws may the students' government pass? How much liberty may be given them toward running the school? The head of the school must never lose sight of his own ultimate responsibility for the teaching of the three R's, for the health of the pupils, and for the safety of the buildings and school property. The pupils should not be allowed to legislate to the expense of their parents. In the particular school whose government is here described the boys pass permanent *laws* of personal conduct and temporary *bills* on how to raise their taxes and for what charities their funds should be appropriated.

It may appear to the thoughtful reader by this tim that such machinery in a government is very cumber some, intricate and time-consuming. It certainly is, but the results are worth it. The lessons of democratic living to be learned in this project are so much more valuable than most of what we teach in school that time should be scheduled for the Government in the regular school curriculum. An hour a week, when no popular program is in competition, will prove to be time extremely well spent and of lasting value.

Trends of Higher Education

(Continued from page 4)

gether and beyond that, how the individual's behavior is affected.

A second responsibility of higher education is *to extend the frontiers of knowledge and to develop new truths.* Such extension of knowledge usually develops through research though sometimes—under exceptional circumstances—it may be developed by the searching insights of genius.

The procedures by which men extend their knowledge are many. Some individuals have a flair for developing new truths by experimental analysis; some recombine previous knowledge in new categories; a number engage in other types of research, and some make the kind of critical analyses about purposes which we call philosophy.

The new truths these and others develop may serve a number of purposes, both utilitarian and aesthetic. The first kinds are those which help individuals to improve vocational competencies or living conditions or even to make survival possible. Aesthetic developments may simply help to make experience richer and more varied. Some see a basic dichotmy between aesthetic and utilitarian truths, and others disparage aesthetic developments. Theirs may be a failure to recognize that beauty, spiritual tranquility, and understanding of the purposes of life are quite as fundamental to survival and improved living conditions as are more food, TV, and atomic energy. The composition of a new concerto may be quite as valuable to society, if not more so, than the development of a new surgical technique. The history of human experience certainly shows that such aesthetic and spiritual developments as the principles of Jesus Christ or Moses have as great a significance for civilization as the invention, for example, of the wheel.

But the process of extending knowledge is not simple or easy. This second function of higher education involves the evaluation of knowledge and the discrimination between fact and "hunch" and between partial truth and the complete picture. The emphasis in higher education is on seeking the whole truth.

Colleges frequently declare that one of the primary missions of their families is the extension of the frontiers of knowledge. This is valid. It is important that college professors everlastingly press forward their study and research. At the same time, study must go hand in hand with a corollary emphasis—that of stimulating students to extend their own frontiers of knowledge—to keep on learning. Growing numbers are concerned with the problem of motivating students to continue learning beyond college. Greater concern by collegiate faculties and greater emphasis on helping students to reinvigorate the insatiable curiosity of their childhood would help them to carry through life a strong and irresistible urge to extend their own frontiers of knowledge.

Preparing young people for a vocation is a third function of higher education. But this is not to be conceived as a narrow mission to provide only specialized training courses, for no one can succeed in a vocation with such preparation alone. Understanding others and the ability to work with them effectively must go hand in hand with specialized knowledge.

It is a fact that higher education provides specialized terminal vocational education of from 1 to 7 years—depending upon whether one is preparing for some technical assistant job or to enter law, engineering, or some other profession—but what goes before is quite as important. The earlier education that is provided in the home, in the elementary and the secondary school, by the church, and by the neighborhood, is of the greatest importance. These influences bend the twig; they set the pattern; they establish the foundation. The collegiate vocational courses could not be provided without that basic development. Taken in conjunction with such personality factors as the ability to work with others, one's qualities of perseverance and one's interest in doing the best possible job despite disheartening obstacles, they may even be of greater significance to vocational success than the technical skills developed in the course of higher education studies. In this sense, all of education is vocational in nature to some extent, and those engaged in higher education as teachers or students are engaged in and need to be concerned with the vocational significance of their activities in a broad sense.

A fourth function of higher education, and a very important one, is to *help students bring about a sense of wholeness, of integration, to their lives as mature individuals.* Prior to college most students accept to a very large degree the pattern of thinking and behavior of those with whom they are associated—their families, friends, and communities. It is true that they have not always agreed with the status quo; they may often have been very critical of what they considered outmoded, hypocritical, or inconsistent ideas and customs. They may have been disturbed and troubled by conflicting values held by persons or groups in whom they had come to have confidence. On the other hand, they may have grown up oblivious and complacent.

Higher education has as one of its functions the examination of life: its purposes, and its rationale of accepted behavior. The testing of one's beliefs—systematically through courses, through living with persons from varied backgrounds, through having to operate as a responsible individual more independently than in earlier youth—such testing is a proper and maturing part of higher education. However, the institution must have a respect for values as well as for seeing that positive and constructive guidance is available to individual students just as certainly as it makes opportunities for students to test, compare, and analyze ideas and ideals. Some valid criticisms can be made of higher education institutions that challenge the ideals and values of youth but fail sometimes to help them to pull their thoughts and beliefs together into a mature and well-integrated philosophy of life.

The degree and quality of public and private support given to institutions of higher education has obvious significance in the long-term growth of our colleges and universities and the achievement of the purposes we have discussed.

During our early history American higher education was almost entirely supported from private sources. In fact, of the 246 colleges established by the close of the year 1860, only 17 were State institutions and but 2 or 3 others had any State connections. Today, while the number of private institutions is double the number of public colleges and universities—there being 1,204 private colleges and 667 public—the enrollment of the public colleges is larger than that of the private colleges. Enrollment at public institutions is 1,319,000 and that of private colleges, 1,148,000.

The functions of higher education described here hold for the privately supported or the publicly supported college or university. Freedom to learn and to teach are present to about the same degree in both. There may be varying emphasis in different colleges, but there is no evidence that the type of support a college has affect these emphases significantly. Many publicly supported colleges are committed to a wider group of studies and to more extensive offerings than many privately supported schools. But here again judgment of whether one or the other of these emphases is good or bad cannot be made unless one makes a previous assumption that education should be for the many or the few. The strength of higher education comes from the diversity of emphasis that is cherished in the United States, and of course, we can preserve this diversity only to the extent that we provide adequate support for both public and privately controlled education.

Forecasting the future is always risky and problematical, but if we have the welfare of higher education at heart, we must shine what light we can into the future. One of the facts which emerges most clearly and about which there can be no equivocation is the foreseeable need for well-trained citizens in many categories. Our needs for engineers, for teachers, for doctors, for clergymen, and for those prepared to deal with complex international problems are obvious.

If higher education is to fulfill its functions, it must help to produce informed and devoted teachers; it must train technologically skilled scientists who understand the bases of our free society; it must produce individuals with the scientific and technical competence needed in our technologically complex civilization; it must educate citizens who can meet the challenges of a world which calls increasingly for more understanding and greater skill; and it must produce scholars and thinkers in every area who will advance the frontiers of knowledge.

(Continued on page 18)

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Frontier Planning for Recreation

(Continued from page 8)

Therefore *Recommendation 3,* deals with the establishment of partnership between the Boards of Education and Boards of Recreation so that policy and procedure may be set up on such aspects as finance, site selection, planning of buildings and grounds and operation.

There should, of course, be two separate Boards, each to direct its field of responsibility. There must be many joint committees in order to plan and to activate those areas of joint concern.

People must be educated to the basic philosophy and its implications in programs and facilities. All educators have a tremendous opportunity here.

Once the ground work is established by many workers, superintendents and board members will be primarily concerned, although all educators will find many opportunities for continuous pioneer work in this important area.

Acquisition of Adequate Land

Because the dual-use plan requires more land than does the traditional school, and because communities often build up rapidly thereby exhausting available desirable site acreage, *Recommendation 4,* stresses the strategic importance of securing adequate land before it is too late.

Here educators as a whole can work with citizen groups in educating them to the importance of this idea. The damage done to children because of inadequate cramped sites is serious and irreparable. Efforts to secure favorable, mandatory zoning and housing legislation may be a feasible and desirable part of this program.

Citizen Participation

Citizen participation is of supreme importance in establishing and operating any leisure-time activity program. Therefore, *Recommendation 5,* stresses the importance of welcoming and encouraging many kinds of citizen participation through the Neighborhood Recreation Council.

Citizens are interested in better neighborhoods for their children, they have a deep desire to serve the community, they want to help, they pay the costs of services. Hence, their right to participate must be provided for.

Opportunity for such participation is provided through the Neighborhood Recreation Council, where citizens deal with the various problems confronting them in the development and operation of a full recreation program designed to serve their neighborhood. They are deeply concerned with all matters which affect those skills, insights, and resources which each individual needs for the wise use of leisure time.

In the frontier field of citizen participation there is a powerful, potential, constructive force. The magnitude of this frontier is clearer when we note that in just one phase, that of volunteer leadership, tens of thousands of parents are active in such youth activities as Little League baseball and Scouts. Educators will find here a great opportunity to help develop the kinds of participation that will bring happiness to youth and satisfaction to citizens.

The five recommendations discussed indicate some of the opportunities for pioneer thinking.

And so in frontier neighborhoods, educators are faced with this opportunity for pioneer thinking and planning, an opportunity to leave a mark, to help win another victory for humanity, to help move civilization another step forward.

. . . Vocabulary in the Social Studies

(Continued from page 9)

an adequate understanding of the concepts and content. Second, evidence has been found which indicates that children in grade six fail to respond correctly to words which are known by children in grade four, seemingly indicating the necessity for constant review and emphasis of vocabulary at each grade level. Unfortunately, too many teachers are still placing their emphasis upon fixing solely factual information in the minds of their pupils rather than on building broader social studies concepts through enriched vocabulary presentation. Third, where the possibility exists of a word having more than one concept attached to it, teachers should familiarize children with the varied meanings of the word. Fourth, teachers cannot afford to assume that a particular word is well known by children but rather, must make it a point to develop word meanings in clarifying or enriching social studies concepts. Fifth, it seems apparent that there is a tendency to substitute simple terms for the proper social studies vocabulary instead of presenting the actual vocabulary of the grade. Sixth, a number of errors were found to be due to auditory and visual misconceptions, thereby justifying the suggestion that a more careful analysis of similarities and differences in social studies words should be presented to the children as well as providing more opportunities for developing keener auditory and visual discrimination.

In conclusion, the problems of teaching social studies vocabulary appear to be similar to those in teaching reading vocabulary. Recognition of unknown or new words, careful analysis of words to insure correct visual recall, presentation of words in a specific concept followed by enrichment of many associations, and repeated applications to fix words as part of the pupils' permanent vocabulary are essential to the development of a sound basic vocabulary in Social Studies as well as in Reading. If these procedures and techniques, which are commonly accepted as part of the reading vocabulary programs, are applied to the teaching of social studies vocabulary, better results will undoubtedly be achieved.

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Children as Creative Writers

By Marion K. Seavey

"Know you what it is to be a child? It is something very different from the man of today. It is to have a spirit yet streaming from the waters of baptism; it is to believe in love, to believe in loveliness, to believe in belief; it is to be so little that the elves can reach to whisper in your ear; it is to turn pumpkins into coaches and mice into horses, lowliness into loftiness and nothing into everything; for each child has a fairy godmother in its soul"*

The world of childhood is indeed a magic one! Creative possibilities are endless if the teacher can wisely foster and guide the elementary school child to discover and develop latent creative abilities. The school curriculum of today with its emphasis on first hand experiences in dramatics, visual aids, art, literature, and music, offers to the child a rich background of sensory experiences which form the beginnings of creative endeavors. Only the child who observes the blue of the sky, the bird on the wing, or who knows the smell and feeling of damp earth after a rain, can describe these experiences. Fostering creative expression in written or oral form is a worthwhile and gratifying undertaking for the teacher, and it is one into which the children enter wholeheartedly when they are properly stimulated.

Authorities disagree as to just what constitutes creative writing. Some believe that ideas or thoughts to be expressed must be entirely original, and the viewpoints must be those which have never been expressed before. Others believe that whatever is said in a person's own individual way, even in a letter, may be creative if it comes from within, and is the result of the speaker's or writer's own personal thinking and feeling. The latter opinion is the one generally accepted in the elementary school.

In trying to meet a specific assignment the child is seldom creative. Attempts to teach the writing of verse by giving the children a rhyming pattern to follow, will usually result in the writing of "doggerel" or in dragged-in ending rhymes. Not all children have the ability to create free, easy verse, but most of them have thoughts and feelings which can be expressed in their own individual ways. These efforts constitute creative writing.

The child will feel free to express his thoughts and feelings, no matter how crude and unpoetic they may sound, if he knows that the teacher understands him and that whatever he writes or dictates will never be exposed to ridicule. Although the child's production should not be praised beyond its merits, standards should not be on a level beyond his ability. What may be crude for an eleven-year-old might be considered commendable for an eight-year-old. (See poems of the seasons by an eight-year-old boy.) A production which shows improvement when done by a mediocre pupil should be praised, while much more should be expected of the gifted child before praise is freely given.

Spring

Spring is a shy
little elf
Prancing through
the trees
A light green
little elf
Like spring buds
on the maple trees

Classroom atmosphere has much to do with the enriching experiences which form the essential background for creative expression. The teacher who herself enjoys poetry, art, and music can contribute much to the enjoyment and stimulation of children. Some approaches to creative writing in the classroom might include the following:

1. Read some good children's poetry aloud every day. Keep the reading periods short and choose a time when the children are relaxed. Ten minutes when they are quiet and listening are far better than a longer period when they are not attentive.

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*From "Shelley" by Francis Thompson. Printed in *The Dublin Review*, 1908.

Choose some gay light verse with good rhythmic swing and a few more quiet poems of mood such as "Stars" by Sara Teasdale, or "Silver" by Walter De La Mare. Poems with sensory appeal and with vivid pictures have a definite place in the poetry periods. Use a good children's anthology and be selective in your choice of verse.

2. Read frequently from samples of the children's own creative productions which you have collected for your files. One way to help children express themselves in a unique way is to have them share in and appreciate the colorful expressions of others, especially in their own group.
3. Help children to put into words an awareness of what is going on about them. On the day of the first snowfall, on a beautifully colorful autumn day or on a showery day, talk about these weather manifestations with the group. Ask the children to put into their own words their feelings about the snow or their feelings when they sense that autumn is in the air. Tell them that poems do not always need to rhyme and that they should feel free to put into their own words their pictures, and the way they feel and think. If certain children prefer to dictate, the teacher quickly jots the child's words on a pad of paper which she should always keep handy.

The children's poems and original paragraphs presented here are all used with permission of the following experienced teachers in the writer's extension classes, and in the campus training school at Plymouth Teachers College: Miss Dorothy O'Neill, third grade supervisor, Plymouth Teachers College Elementary Training School; Mrs. Alice Lorden, sixth grade teacher, Canaan, New Hampshire; Mrs. Lois Querim, former sixth grade supervisor at Plymouth Teachers College. The poems of four seasons were written by an eight-year-old boy in third grade. They were done without any teacher direction or suggestion, the elf in each poem being the boy's own creative idea. He has illustrated the one on spring.

Summer

Summer is a bright little elf,
Shining in the sun,
A bright yellow little elf
Like dandelions out for fun.

Fall

Fall is like a gay little elf
Dancing in the breeze,
A red and brown little elf
Like the autumn leaves.

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Winter

Winter is a cold little elf
Shivering in his cave,
A blue and white little elf
Like skies on winter days.

A girl in the fifth grade who enjoyed color went to her desk one bright morning in October and wrote the following:

Autumn

Autumn is so picturesque
It dresses leaves in very best,
Along the country roads you sight
The red and gold that shine so bright
Leaves of yellow, some of red
Falling on their russet bed.

A rainy day in March was the inspiration for this bit of creative writing done by a girl in second grade. On her way to school she passed a gasoline station. To the adult, a puddle of gasoline seems hardly the subject for creative writing, but to the child it represented something which she vividly expresses.

The Rain

The little drops of water fall about us.
They fall on everything on the ground and melt the blanket of snow away.
When it falls on a puddle of gasoline it looks beautiful.
With lines of colors running into each other it looks like a rainbow only it is on the ground.

A fifth grade girl who enjoyed poems with vivid pictures and sensory appeal submitted the following:

Smells

The damp, earthly smells in a greenhouse,
The smells of caramel in a candy kitchen
The smell of newly blossomed flowers—
These are smells I like.

The same child, after a science-nature excursion, wrote her impressions of a tree which she had seen. Her vivid pictures are apparent in this little "poem."

The Tree

Tree in the spring
Like a new born baby
All dressed up to go out.
Tall and straight, slender trunk.
But look, what do I see?
A red leaf, a brown leaf.
It is not spring,
It is fall.

The child who wrote the poem below has a keen sense of humor and asked the teacher to read his contribution from the files of children's work which she kept. He said it had a surprise ending which it certainly has!

My Wooden Boat

My father made me a wooden boat,
It wouldn't sink and it wouldn't float,
I took the oars and went out to sea,
And that was the last that they saw of me.
The people cried and the people sighed,
For they were sure that I had died—
But someone went out to fish in the brook,
And I came up on their old fish hook!

Often children will express their true feelings in writing if given the opportunity to do so. A sixth grade boy who was very fond of snakes became much disturbed when a classmate captured one and kept it in a cage. So deeply did this young snake-lover feel about the incident, that during a creative writing period at school one day he told the teacher that he wanted to write "just what he felt." This was the result.

Poor Snake

The little snake glides through the grass,
He is very much at home there.
He likes to eat many good things
Such as bugs and frogs and toads,
He also likes the tall green grass
So smooth and long and shiny,
But there is one thing that he does not like
And that is a little boy
A boy who puts him in a cage—
A large wooden and steel one
With bars that he cannot break,
And keeps him there until the very end
Which is not far away.

On one beautiful spring day the children in a small village school saw a plane fly over their playground. They began to take it on an imaginary journey and before going home that afternoon a sixth grade boy left this bit of verse on the teacher's desk.

(Continued on next page)

A Journey

From the mountains to the sea,

We will travel you and me.

Over plains and through the woods,

We will go as travellers should.

Seeing springtime come to light,

Making the world a brand new sight.

Yes, the world of childhood is indeed a magic one! Helping children to express themselves creatively in writing is fun. Who knows? You may have a child in your classroom with true poetic promise, one who will be ever grateful for the encouragement which you can give him. This is poetry as defined by Robert Frost, our greatest living American poet:

> "A complete poem is one where the emotion has found its thought, and the thought has found the words."

Educational Television . . .

(Continued from page 5)

accurately defined and delimited. It is not easy to fit programs into the crowded schedules of a hundred different schools. Clearly television cannot now, or indeed ever, become a satisfactory substitute for the give-and-take of the classroom. Passive receptivity, such as that created by the motion picture or the radio, is not the proper mood for intellectual development. If educational television can provoke discussion, if it can arouse an active response from those who are exposed to it, then it may be very helpful. The danger is, as every teacher knows, that it may lull the minds into lethargy and leave them even more apathetic than they were before.

Furthermore, Channel 2, even with its rich cultural resourses, may not be able to operate very long unless it can count on the continuous financial backing of its supporters. It was made possible in the beginning by generous private donations, and its station is the gift of the Ford and Filene Funds. It cannot be expected that the revenue from these sources will always be available. Within two years Channel 2 must deserve and receive an income from those who use it, or close up; and the more money it can count on, the better its programs are likely to become. The precise method by which well-wishers can pay in some degree for what they receive is yet to be determined. But it is certain that they will not contribute unless they get the *quid pro quo* to which they rightly think themselves entitled.

Certain groups have had, and still have high hopes for educational television. The ill and the "shut-ins," the parents of small children, the workers eager to advance their technical and general education, the small public schools with inadequate resources, the millions who enjoy good music and lectures,—all these are now forming their judgments on Channel 2. And those responsible for the programming are sensitively responsive to public opinion.

As President Pusey and others have pointed out, the opportunities for educational television are almost infinite. Granted that the number of those to whom it appeals does not include all the owners of television sets. But within the present sixty-mile range of Channel 2 are approximately 1,500,000 homes with access to television. If only one owner out of ten turns the dial to an educational program, at least three or four hundred thousand persons are affected,—and this proportion seems to the statisticians very small indeed. There is no reason why the programs presented by Channel 2 should not, within a year, be watched by a million people, on all levels from childhood to old age.

The courageous pioneers in the field of educational television are convinced that simple programs presented by honest and intelligent performers will win popular approval and be able to sustain themselves. For the moment, the directors ask from their audiences patience, tolerance, and cooperation. They are sure that Channel 2, drawing its talent from Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, from the Museum of Fine Arts and the Museum of Science, and from many other reputable sources, will not lack authority or distinction.

When Stanley King was elected President of Amherst College, he asked his friend, Calvin Coolidge, for advice. The ex-President pondered for a few seconds and then replied, "You can't please everybody. Better not try!" This was counsel based on considerable personal experience. Although Channel 2 is endeavoring conscientiously to serve the entire community, it probably will not altogether succeed. It does, however, merit the support of all those who see in popular education our chief hope as a democracy in which every citizen has a vote and a voice.

Trends of Higher Education

(Continued from page 13)

Our shortage of teachers today weakens our whole educational system. In the face of a general need for more competently educated citizens, we find an increasing percentage of children today receiving schooling either from teachers who are substandard in their preparation, or in overcrowded classrooms, or in half-day sessions. Our lack of approximately 70,000 properly certificated elementary school teachers compromises the futures of hundreds of thousands of youngsters. Unless we meet the needs at the elementary level and prepare now for the needs ahead for high school and college teachers, we shall run the risk of shortchanging the oncoming generation.

Similar shortages in scientific fields are causing deep concern. It is estimated that we need at least 30,000 trained engineers annually to meet the needs of our technology. We are graduating approximately 19,000 this year. The discrepancy between need and supply is obvious. Moreover, for each engineer we need from two to five technically trained individuals

(Continued on page 22)

Music Supervision in Grades One to Six

By Russell L. Lewis

INTRODUCTION

I believe that the competent classroom teacher can teach music, and do a better job of it than a music specialist who visits each class a few periods a week. I am not alone in this belief, as shown by the recent trend toward the self-contained classroom and by the writing of professional educators and music specialists, notably Mursell and Mathews. However, if we expect the classroom teacher, with very little preparation in the field of music education, to teach music, we must readjust our thinking on both the objectives of music education and the role of the music supervisor.

OBJECTIVES OF MUSIC EDUCATION

Once it was thought that if you first taught a child the skills and techniques of reading music he would automatically be capable of enjoying it. Some heretics in the first part of the twentieth century proposed teaching the enjoyment of music first, but they had little success in convincing the leading music educators of their time. Today, however, through that gradual process of change typical of the entire field of education, their theories have become accepted by a majority of the leading educators in both music and general education. Today we say with Mursell that music education is not a technical specialty but a growth in understanding and enjoyment.[1] If we accept this standard, then the classroom teacher will be in an excellent position to direct those activities leading to the desired outcomes of enjoyment and undertanding of music.

ROLE OF MUSIC SUPERVISOR

What is the music supervisor's role in this changing conception of music education? Is he to be a taskmaster who sets up the "course-of-study," then checks to see that it is properly carried out? Or can he be a real help to the teachers as they try to put into practice this modern philosophy of music education? The whole program, of course, succeeds or fails as a result of his actions and attitudes.

The supervisor or consultant in music should feel that it is his job to help the classroom teacher gain in the abilities and skills necessary to carry out her objectives. His most important task is to give the teacher that self-confidence which comes from knowing what is expected of her and the feeling that she is capable of performing those duties. In no circumstance should the supervisor attempt to make an imitation "music teacher" out of the classroom teacher. The specialist is needed to guide the classroom teacher in methods and in selection of material, to stimulate and provide in-service growth in musical understanding, to coordinate the total school program, and to provide resource materials. He is still needed, also, to provide the specialized instruction for the relatively small number of children who have outstanding talent in music.

NEEDS OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

What help does the classroom teacher need most in order to better direct her music activities? Sheehy[2] states,

> The greatest need of the classroom teacher is for her to discover *herself* musically, and no task calls for greater skill on the part of the skilled music consultant than in helping her to do this.

This writer's own experience has upheld this view. Most teachers, when confronted for the first time with the responsibility for teaching their own classes in music, invariably say that the reason they cannot do so is that they do not know music. What they really mean comes out in discussion as this, "I don't know how to *read* music." Great tact, patience, and a liberal quantity of human sympathy and kindness is required in clarifying the purposes of music education to the teacher and in convincing her that she is the person best fitted to accomplish these purposes. The classroom teacher must first be won by warm understanding of her problems. Personality is a tremendous factor in the success of any supervisory process, whether it is in a special field such as music or on the administrative level. The supervisor must work with and through the teacher, not down to the teacher. This is easy to understand, but many find it hard to put into actual practice.

Next in importance is the classroom teacher's need for assistance in the selection and use of resource material. Teachers are busy with a multitude of activities. In the press of day to day emergencies and decisions the teacher often simply does not have time to dig out supplementary material relating to her current music activities. Here is the supervisor's golden opportunity to break down the attitude that he is a "boss", and establish himself as a helper. Being a specialist in the field of music the supervisor knows what materials are available and helpful, and where to obtain them. He can bring to the teacher a recording or filmstrip which fits perfectly into the teacher's program, and create a far better feeling of harmony than any amount of speeches in a teacher's meeting could possibly do.

---

[1] Mursell, James L., *Music and the Classroom Teacher.* Silver Burdett Co., New York, Chicago, San Francisco, 1951. p. 6.

[2] Sheehy, Emma Dickson, "Music and the Classroom Teacher," *Music Educators Journal,* vol. 37, p. 36. (September, 1950).

Finally, the teacher needs to grow. There is no accepted level at which a teacher may stop and say in effect, "There, I've reached it. I need go no higher." No elaboration on this point seems to be necessary. It is accepted whole-heartedly by teachers and administrators alike throughout the country that they must continue to grow if they are to successfully accomplish their purposes in educating children. The music supervisor must provide the stimulus and means for in-service growth in music for the classroom teachers. This need not be a formal, workshop growth, although this is one excellent method. Through conferences, informal discussions, and through example much worthwhile growth may be accomplished.

CONCLUSIONS

The classroom teacher can do an excellent job of teaching music if two things are accepted:

1. The ultimate goal of elementary school music education is to teach children to *enjoy* music.
2. The supervisor's job is to *help* the teacher, not dictate to her.

The supervisor must show a genuine respect for what a teacher can do. The individual differences of teachers must be recognized, and the strengths developed and cultivated. Too often supervision is concerned with the remedying of faults, when it should be concerned with taking the best features and building something constructive upon them. Briggs and Justman[3] stress this creative aspect of supervision in their statement, "The highest achievement of a school is effected by capitalizing on the special aptitudes or talents of people rather than by overcoming their weaknesses."

---

[3] Briggs H., and Justman, Joseph, *Improving Instruction Through Supervision.* Macmillan Company, New York, 1952. p. 11.

Through some prank of the Christmas Elves we didn't tell our readers that the picture of Santa Claus on the December cover came from Santa Claus, Indiana. There, one may enter into Santa Claus Land at any time of the year, visit the jolly old fellow himself, his home, his Deer farm, his railroad, join his Chamber of Commerce and even mail letters through the Santa Claus, Indiana, Post Office. Our apologies to Santa and we hope he won't forget to stop when he comes by next Christmas.

. . . *Vocabulary in the Social Studies*

(Continued from page 14)

[1] Chambers, J. Richard; Cooper, Marguerite M.; Firestone, Pearl P.; Koss, Ruth O.; Laflamme, Conrad J.; Licciardello, Rose; Masavage, Rose E.; Salvucci, Irma; Sayward, David A.; and Tibolt, Gildert, "Studies Based on the Earley and Wolffer Social Studies Vocabulary Test for Grades IV, V, and VI." Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boston University, 1953.

[2] Earley, William L., Jr., "The Construction and Evaluation of a Social Studies Vocabulary Association Test for Intermediate Grades." Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Boston: Boston University, 1952.

[3] Wolffer, William A., "The Construction and Evaluation of a Social Studies Context Vocabulary Test." Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Boston: Boston University, 1952.

[4] Durrell, Donald D., "Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities." Yonkers-on-the-Hudson: World Book Company, 1940. p. 281.

[5] Gates, Arthur I., "Gates Reading Survey for Grades 3 (2nd Half) to 10." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942 Revision.

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A Teacher's Check List for Identifying Potential Delinquents

By William C. Kvaraceus

In recent months much attention has been focused on delinquency prevention through early identification of children who are vulnerable or exposed to the development of delinquency-aggression as a form of adjustive behavior. A number of instruments which appear to have some promise in a systematic and scientific attempt at early identification of delinquency-prone children include the following: *Personal Index Test,*[1] *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory,*[2] *Porteus Maze Test,*[3] *Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory,*[4] *Glueck Prediction Tables,*[5] *Behavior Cards: A Test-Interview for Delinquent Children,*[6] *KD Proneness Scale and Check List.*[7]

Of these items, the Glueck Prediction Tables are based on the most elaborate, painstaking, and expensive research. However, the Glueck Tables have not yet undergone adequate validation, although a current study is under way in New York City in which one of these tables is being subjected to a "before and after" study. In the Glueck Study, 500 delinquents and 500 non-delinquents were compared on more than 400 variables running across all life experiences of the child as well as on selected psychological and psychiatric tests. Three separate prediction tables were prepared using social-case work data, the results of a Rorschach, and the responses in a psychiatric interview. However, none of the data on the school factors differentiating delinquents from non-delinquents was utilized in any of these instruments. Use of these three devices or techniques assumes that a school system or a community will have one or more social workers, psychiatrists, and psychologists, an assumption that is obviously far removed from reality. Furthermore, these techniques involve individual approaches and are time-consuming.

The question is raised in this paper: Can there be evolved an observation tool or check list that could be used more readily by trained professional workers—namely, teachers—in the manner of group intelligence tests, reading readiness instruments, and standardized achievement tests whereby the bulk of the vulnerable children can be screened off for further checking and for individual help, using all the community resources?

Two such instruments have already been developed in the *KD Proneness Scale and Check List.*[8] Attention here is focused on a further elaboration of a check list to be used by teachers in which the observations are limited to the school situation. Table 1 represents a delinquency proneness check list which is based on school factors or experiences differentiating delinquents from non-delinquents as reported in five major control studies (including the Glueck data)[9] conducted in different parts of the country.

(Continued on next page)

TABLE 1

Delinquency Proneness Check List for Teacher Use Based on School Factors Differentiating Delinquents from Non-Delinquents in Five Major Studies

Yes	No	?	Factor
( )	( )	( )	1. Shows marked dislike for school
( )	( )	( )	2. Resents school routine and restriction
( )	( )	( )	3. Disinterested in school program
( )	( )	( )	4. Is failing in a number of subjects
( )	( )	( )	5. Has repeated one or more grades
( )	( )	( )	6. Attends a special class for retarded pupils
( )	( )	( )	7. Has attended many different schools
( )	( )	( )	8. Intends to leave school as soon as the law allows
( )	( )	( )	9. Has only vague academic or vocational plans
( )	( )	( )	10. Has limited academic ability
( )	( )	( )	11. Is a serious or persistent misbehaving child
( )	( )	( )	12. Destroys school materials or property
( )	( )	( )	13. Is cruel and bullying on the playground
( )	( )	( )	14. Has temper tantrums in the classroom
( )	( )	( )	15. Wants to stop schooling at once
( )	( )	( )	16. Truants from school
( )	( )	( )	17. Does not participate in organized extra-curricular programs
( )	( )	( )	18. Feels he does not "belong" in the classroom

Since these eighteen factors have been shown to be significantly characteristic of delinquents when compared with their non-delinquent controls, it is suggested that teachers keep a weather-eye open for those children who show many of these characteristics and take a "second look" at the subject who shows a saturation of these factors. Early identification and referral of children who give many of these signs to local child study and diagnostic agencies within the school organization or within the community for complete study and treatment can serve as the proverbial ounce of prevention that is worth more than the "pound" of court and institutional control.

Only as such vulnerable or exposed children are identified early and are referred to appropriate child-study organizations can the community hope to stem the fast-rising trend in the incidence of serious delinquencies in communities throughout the United States.

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[1] Graham C. Loofbourow and Noel Keys, *The Personal Index Test,* Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau, 1933.

[2] Starke R. Hathaway and C. Charnley McKinley, *The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory,* New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1943. Starke R. Hathaway and Elio D. Monachesi, *Analyzing and Predicting Juvenile Delinquency with the MMPI,* New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1953.

[3] S. D. Porteus, *Porteus Maze Test,* Chicago: C. H. Stoelting Company, 1933.

[4] J. N. Washburne, *Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory,* Yonkers: World Book Company, 1938.

[5] Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency,* The Commonwealth Fund, Harvard University Press, 1950.

[6] Ralph M. Stogdill, *Behavior Cards,* New York: Psychological Corporation, 1940.

[7] W. C. Kvaraceus, *K D Proneness Scale and Check List,* Yonkers: World Book Company, 1953.

[8] W. C. Kvaraceus, *K D Proneness Scale and Check List,* Yonkers: World Book Company, 1953. W. C. Kvaraceus, *The Community and the Delinquent: Cooperative Approaches to Preventing and Controlling Delinquency,* Yonkers: World Book Company, 1954.

[9] William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner, *New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment,* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936. W. C. Kvaraceus, *Juvenile Delinquency and the School,* Yonkers: World Book Company, 1945. William W. Wattenberg, *Boy Repeaters,* Unpublished study, distributed under the auspices of the College of Education, Wayne University, 1947. Maud A. Merrill, *Problems of Child Delinquency,* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor Glueck, *Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency,* The Commonwealth Fund, Harvard University Press, 1950.

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Trends of Higher Education

(Continued from page 18)

—or from 60,000 to 150,000 a year. This year our non-degree granting technical institutes will train roughly 8,000 technically competent persons—a small fraction of the number we need.

We could continue our list of shortages, but to do so would only belabor the point already made: that higher education faces significant challenges in meeting many pressing national needs. We shall help to meet these needs if we take steps to reduce the tremendous waste of potentially well-trained men and women whom we now lose because of "drop-outs" in high school and in college. Not all of those who leave should stay on, but we know that many whom we now lose have the ability to complete their course and take places in our system as productive citizens.

Estimates of those who will be seeking opportunities in higher education in the coming years are striking and challenging. In 1952, for example, we had 536,879 college freshmen. In 1965, a scant few years hence, over a million will seek entrance to college—and this estimate is a conservative one.

Such figures as these suggest among other things: first, that locally supported colleges whose students live at home will grow in significance and importance; and, second, that we face a tremendously urgent need to recruit the ablest minds we have for college teaching and that we take steps to retain them in the profession.

Because the frontiers of knowledge lie in many directions, colleges have a wide choice of alternatives as to where they want to place their emphases. They are free to explore and mine a variety of fields. Their freedom to choose one or more of these is both a challenge and a responsibility. Certainly they must continue their advances in science and technology, but as they consider the values of our democracy they may well recognize the urgency of the need to place more emphasis on human and spiritual values.

The challenge to higher education is not only to make room for the doubled or quadrupled enrollments ahead so that colleges and universities can provide the training essential if this Nation is to survive and maintain its place of leadership in this world. It is even more fundamental. Our primary concern is with the human element—the teacher and the taught. We must have the appurtenances of education—buildings, books, laboratories, salaries—and each of us must help his college to get these. But these are means, not ends. The ends are the preservation, the transmission, the extension, and the use of knowledge to increase the dignity of man, the freedom of the soul, and the enrichment of the spirit of all mankind.

Each person who contributes as teacher, as student, or as a supporter of a college that advances these ends is advancing higher education in America.

SCIENCE? ARITHMETIC? OR WHAT?

Can you visualize the things that must have gone on in the classroom where this chart appeared on the bulletin board?

Pumpkins get ripe in the fall.

Allan brought a small pumpkin to school.

We tried to guess how many seeds were in the pumpkin.

We counted the seeds.

There were 338 seeds.

Penny guessed 300.

She guessed the closest number.

We made a happy Jack-o'-lantern.

We learned a song about a Jack-o'-lantern.

A STIMULATING ENVIRONMENT

Labeled pictures, colors, charts, numbers, objects, etc., about the room help to create a stimulating environment and give the child something worthwhile to look at or reproduce in his spare time. Don't be afraid to repeat an idea in various places in the room. Balanced arrangements help, too.

One teacher took some old editions of the basic pre primers, cut out the pictures with pinking shears, mounted them on chart paper, and developed stories with the children. This made good reading readiness material.

For quickly made charts that are not to be kept permanently, one teacher takes the plain newsprint paper, folds it to provide lines and spaces, and prints with crayon.

Children can help put toys and materials away if the shelves are labeled with both the word and the picture. Teaches reading, too.

USES FOR CORRUGATED PAPER

It makes an excellent miniature log house when the ridges are placed horizontally.

It makes a realistic jungle hut when the ridges are placed vertically.

It makes a good looking tile roof on a modern house.

It makes an interesting frame for a picture.

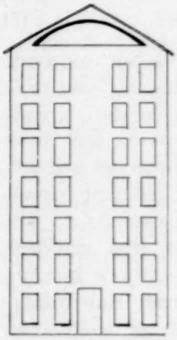
THE TASK GROWS LIGHTER

In one classroom the task in spelling grows lighter as the week progresses.

On Monday morning they start with the list of words and a list of the members of the class. After the pre-test, words nobody missed are crossed off, and also those people who made no mistakes.

After Wednesday, test words spelled correctly by all are crossed off and again pupils with perfect scores are crossed off.

By Friday the mastery test includes only those words where errors exist and those pupils still needing a perfect score. That puts the grease where the squeak is. Saves work, too.



ARE YOU HERE?

Each window is cut out so it will open like a door. Each child brought a small snapshot of himself to put in his window. The teacher wrote his name under his window.

Each morning when he comes, he opens his window to show that he is present. When he goes home he closes it.

The teacher's picture is in the doorway.

It makes a quick check on attendance. It gives each child a responsibility. It helps in recognition of names.

It was made of a heavy colored desk blotter. You might want to use something else.

PENCIL SHARPENING AID

Do your children grind down their pencils on the pencil sharpener?

To avoid grinding away in the sharpener, measure off from intended point of pencil, the length of the cutter bar. Insert pencil and turn the handle with a smooth action till thumb rests against the sharpener.

Presto! a good point, usually, and no waste.

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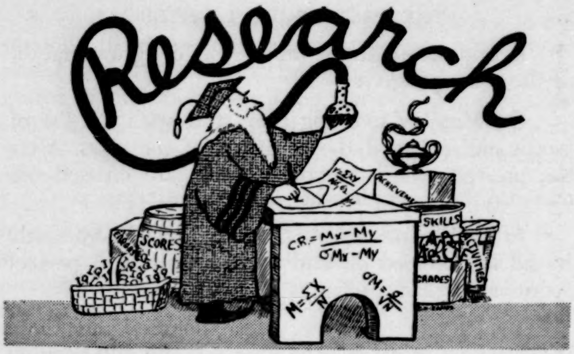

Concept Development Through Reading: What Research Says[1]

By Frank W. Martin

In developing new concepts the teacher succeeds or fails in proportion to his knowledge of how concept formation takes place. Ought he to state a concept, have a child repeat his statement, and then apply it in some way? Or should he begin at a much more concrete level in the belief that concept formation proceeds from the concrete experience to abstraction? It is a well-known fact that children acquire numerous concepts directly—without instruction, through their first-hand experiences. But numerous others, perhaps even a majority of their concepts, are furthered through reading. This is an essential method, because the use of texts and other books is an important means of instruction in our schools.

The term *concept,* as used here, may be defined as a general notion, an idea applying to a class of objects, or even a broad generalization. In the sense that a concept is often represented by a particular word, concept development is synonymous with the development of meaning vocabulary. However, the term often indicates a much broader process leading to the development of a conclusion or generalization. For a description of the properties of concepts, the reader is referred to a recent article by Vinacke (39).

For the purposes of this report, a careful canvass of published reports yielded eighty-two pertinent studies relating to concept development, which ranged in publication date from 1880 to the present time. A few of the most important findings of these studies are summarized here under questions of practical interest to teachers and school officials. Space permits only limited reference to specific studies.

To What Extent is Concept Building Dependent Upon Meaning Vocabulary?

One of the earliest and most interesting studies bearing upon the question of meaning vocabulary was made by Fennell (10). She noted that even though primary children used materials having scientific control of word forms, they often encountered difficulty in interpreting them. Accordingly, she analyzed the vocabularies of five sets of primary readers for words used with different meanings. Her findings showed that a total of 222 different words appeared in these materials with a total of 842 meanings, an average of almost four different interpretations per word. Even such simple words as *by, good, in,* and *up* were used with widely different import. Fennell concluded, therefore, that even at the primary-grade level children encounter serious difficulty in acquiring an accurate meaning vocabulary, and that the burden of interpretation placed on the children is greater than teachers usually realize. Thus it may be said that the wrong meaning for words of multiple meanings obstructs understanding. Without significant meaning vocabulary on the part of the reader there can be no concept development.

In a study of the vocabulary difficulties in a third-grade reader, Herbers (17) tested Grade III pupils on their understanding of a selection read silently. Her findings showed various inadequate and incorrect concepts of words, phrases, and sentences. She also found that pupils use and read words with apparent facility, and yet have vague or incorrect concepts of their meanings.

The importance of meaning vocabulary is further shown by Barr (2). He developed a definitions test to measure knowledge of the 120 words most frequently occurring in historical materials. Barr found very poor mastery of these frequently used words. It varied from about 33 per cent in Grade VIII to about 83 per cent at college level. Barr concluded that the language used in history is not meaningful to a large proportion of the pupils who read it. This fact greatly limits the enrichment of human experience that should result from a study of history. Many studies confirm this finding, not only for history, but also for other curriculum areas.

On the basis of such investigations as these, it appears that the confusion that reading materials often cause in the minds of children can be cleared up through systematic development of meaning vocabulary, and thereby conceptual attainment through reading will be facilitated.

What Factors Other Than Word Meanings Influence the Building of Concepts?

Research has shown that growth in acquiring concepts through reading depends not only upon increasing meaning vocabulary, but also upon intelligence, chronological age, physical and personal development, readiness for the material, familiarity with elements of literary style, interest in the topic discussed, experiential background, teaching methods, method of text presentation, mental activity during reading. Space will allow a discussion of but a few of these factors.

Let us consider experiential background. Language derives its meanings from experience. Without the experiences assumed by the author of the material, the reader cannot correctly interpret the language he meets in a book and cannot reconstruct his ideas in new ways, thereby attaining new concepts. This is true however well he may recognize and pronounce the words.

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[1] This paper is based on a study undertaken by the writer at Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan.

Murphy (28) made an investigation to determine the role of the concepts a reader brings to the reading situation. He found that the concepts of good readers are more efficiently organized, possess a significantly higher degree of clarity, and are more accurate than those of poor readers. Thus these previous concepts provide a framework for good interpretation, which in turn can contribute to new learning. A study by Hilliard and Troxell (18) shows that children who have rich experiential backgrounds are better equipped to attack the printed page than are pupils of meager backgrounds, because of the varied meanings and thought that the former group brings to the task. Therefore, an important step in instruction is that of providing prereading experiences that will illuminate the material to be read.

If the meaning a reader gets from a printed page depends upon the meaning he brings to it, one might expect that the more a reader already knows about the subject discussed in the reading material, the better able he will be to read and understand it. This point of view is supported by data supplied by Chall (7) and Bird (4). Chall's findings suggest that the reading process is, in a sense, a circle. "We read in order to gain experience, and yet we get more out of reading if we have more experience" (7:230). She recommends that teachers supply a background for the reading to make it meaningful. Bird supplies evidence which confirms certain of Chall's findings, and points out that preparing the learner mentally for the work expected of him, by catching his attention and arousing his interest, is worth-while.

Most of the factors upon which the successful development of concepts depends can be greatly improved through skillful guidance. Many studies have shown that efforts to improve reading ability, interest in acquiring concepts and mental activity during reading, produce measurable gains in concept development.

To What Extent Is the Concept Load of Reading Materials Adjusted To The Abilities of the Children Who Use These Materials?

Scientific investigations have revealed that numerous concepts are often presented in a brief space in reading materials. This overloading is especially true of textbooks in the content subjects.

Concept Load in the School Subjects. In the child's contacts with the curriculum areas, he meets many new and strange concepts. Often these are peculiar to a particular subject. In arithmetic, for example, an analysis by Brooks (6) of texts for Grades III to VIII disclosed a total of 429 arithmetical terms, with more than a third of these terms technical words appearing less than five times. The investigator interpreted these findings to mean that many of the technical words found in arithmetic are not really essential, that some could be entirely omitted from the texts. While Pressey and Elam (32) found 117 words to be the essential core of arithmetic vocabulary to be learned in elementary school, Remmers and Grant (33) found a vocabulary range in secondary mathematics books of from 220 to 380 different words per thousand words.

Also heavy is the load of concepts and generalizations presented in the social sciences. Lacey (23) found 125 concepts and 315 associated meanings required by textbooks and teachers in the first three grades; Kelty (22) found 711 words for the intermediate grades; and Shambaugh (36) found an average total of 1,059 different words in five ninth-grade ancient texts. Barr and Gifford (3) studied senior high-school textbooks in American history and found about 7,631 different technical words. Only 118 of these words occur in all the texts.

Investigations reported by Schneck and Curtis (34), Curtis (8), and Powers (31) provide data which suggests that the vocabulary loads of the various physical sciences are nearly as heavy and diverse as those for the social sciences.

With the present trend in instruction to use cobasal books, the reports just mentioned would seem to indicate that key words used in studying one text will often be of slight assistance to the student using another text. Also, these studies relate chiefly to the unfamiliar vocabulary used. Inasmuch as new concepts may also be presented in familiar vocabulary, the great extent of the concept load of current school materials is apparent.

Concept Load in Reading Texts. Research indicates that the concept count found in general reading materials used for reading instruction is not dissimilar from that found in the content fields. Data obtained by Ide and Oberg (21) indicates clearly that children are required to have a wide variety of concepts available for use in their early reading activities. Marcum (24) found a total of 2,748 concepts in sixty books used at preprimer through second-grade levels. This indicates that wide reading at beginner's level is likely to be accompanied by confusion due to vague or unfamiliar concepts. Gunderson (16), comparing the contents of readers, found an increased emphasis on social studies type materials and informational stories, demanding numerous concepts closely related to life of today. Stone (38), Sims (37), and Hockett and Neeley (19, 20) supplied data which also indicate the tremendous variety of concepts included in basic readers for children.

Inquiries by Waters (40), Meighan and Barth (27), Partridge (29), and Gunderson (14) give evidence that very specialized content area concepts are essential for successful reading achievement with the various books used in reading classes. Serra (35) points out that attempts at simplification of vocabulary have little effect upon comprehension, since the ideas, not the words, are hard or easy to grasp. Thus it may be concluded that the mere comprehension of ideas in general schoolbooks is a difficult task. How much more difficult, then, for the reader to obtain new concepts through his reading!

How Can Teachers Help Pupils to Acquire Concepts Through Reading?

First-hand Experience. The overwhelming evidence in favor of a wide experiential background as a means of enriching concepts shows the importance of providing readiness for reading. In a study designed to yield insight into the specific experiences that are necessary for kindergarten children to understand and be interested in what they will read in Grade I, Waters (40) examined fifty primers and first readers. Among the experiences considered necessary were *animals, zoo,* workers of some type, *farm, play, nature, toys, circus, community,* and *school activities.* To determine which of the experiences were lacking in her pupils, Waters questioned them as she showed pictures representing these experiences. Attempting to meet these lacks, she found value in trips, discussions, dramatizations, construction projects, play, books, pictures, literature, art, and music.

Vicarious Experiences Through Reading. Frequently it is impossible to have illuminating first-hand experiences. For instance, remote historical activities cannot always be described in terms of present experience. A possible way to gain insight into past experiences is that of reading about them. By this means historical understanding or appreciation may be developed vicariously. Studies indicate, however, that the manner in which the ideas are presented in the reading material and the type of instruction preceding the reading, together with visual aids available affect the quality of the experience gained.

Take the matter of experiencing a time span of several hundred years. An understanding of such passage of time is necessary for the interpretation of events remote in time. Importance of the method of presentation is emphasized in a study reported by Gabel (12). He found that for the sake of clarity definite statements of dates in social studies materials, such as "It happend in 1770," are more helpful to a reader than indefinite statements such as "It happened in colonial days." McLaughlin (26) reported a need for better instruction and practice in using maps that will illuminate reading texts, and for training in organizing information and drawing inferences. Friedman and Marti (11) secured data which show that pupils who receive systematic instruction in the use of time lines, chronology, and historical time concepts develop better appreciation of time concepts than do pupils who receive no such training. It is imperative, therefore, that teachers choose reading materials employing language that children can easily understand, and train them to interpret these materials, and to utilize visual aids to learning.

Clarification of Meaning as an Aid in Concept Development. Numerous studies show clearly that some kind of preparation is needed prior to the reading act. Gray and Holmes (13) reported that direct instruction in word meanings is an excellent aid to good interpretation. Evidence submitted by Bradley, Cahill, and Tate (5), Dresher (9), and Phipps (30) correlates closely with the findings of Gray and Holmes. In addition, specific guidance in reading skills and techniques, as suggested by findings of McCallister (25), Ayer (1), McLaughlin (26), and Gunderson (15), helps the reader to compensate for difficulties and differences of style, to understand and utilize synonyms and other literary devices to advantage, and to make fullest use of the reading materials available. It thus becomes obvious that a good teacher not only exposes the child to reading materials that contribute to concept development, but also guides the child in making the ideas his own and in reaching new conclusions.

Important Areas in which Further Research is Needed

Past research in the area of this summary has been usually concerned with reading materials, and rarely with the individuals who are required to read these materials. In the future, studies should be undertaken to ascertain what concepts children might be expected to have acquired at each successive age level. This knowledge will enable teachers to meet group needs. Future research is also needed to determine significant individual variations from such norms.

Additional data are needed concerning the concepts that are really important for use in general reading and for use in each content field. Effort ought to be made to secure evidence of the kinds of reading selections that provide the concepts required for future reading needs. Obviously, the present practice of including too many concepts prevents the attainment of essential ones.

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(Continued on page 28)

About
Our Authors

Since 1953, ***S. M. Brownell*** has been the United States Commissioner of Education. He received his degrees from the University of Nebraska and Yale University; since 1947 he has been President of New Haven State Teachers College. Dr. Brownell has participated in "extensive surveys on various aspects of education and school systems in New England, Nebraska and Illinois."

Erwin D. Canham, eminent Editor of *The Christian Science Monitor,* is also moderator of the television program, "Meet the Editors," and a public speaker of national reputation. The quotation in this issue is an excerpt from an address given recently to incoming students at Boston University.

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An authority in the field of delinquency, ***William C. Kvaraceus*** is the author of *"The Community and the Delinquent"* (1954) and *"Juvenile Delinquency and the School"* (1945), both published by World Book Company. Dr. Kvaraceus is now a Professor of Education at Boston University. From 1952 to '53 he was consultant to the U. S. Senate Subcommittee investigating juvenile delinquency.

Russell L. Lewis is an instructor in band and orchestra in the Delano, California elementary schools. Following graduate study at the University of Arizona, Mr. Lewis supervised music for several years in Gila Bend and Williams, Arizona. Mr. Russell's hobbies include church choir direction, gardening, stamp collecting, hunting, fishing and writing children's stories.

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FOLKWAYS RECORDS

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NEW BOOKS

Think! Think! Think!

Think! Just stop and think! How many times teachers say that to pupils. How often all of us feel that many of our problems would be solved if we thought more or better. Recently three books have been published which discuss the thought process or the results of thinking: *Power of Words* by Stuart Chase (Harcourt Brace and Company, 1954), *Symbols and Values: An Initial Study. Report of the Thirteenth Symposium of the Conference on Science, Philosophy and Religion* edited by Lyman Bryson, Louis Finkelstein, R. M. MacIver, and Richard McKeon (Harper and Brothers, 1954), and *Scientific Explanation* by R. B. Braithwaite (Cambridge University Press, 1953). This list is arranged in order with the easiest to read first; unfortunately the order of real importance is exactly the opposite. The three books might be summed up superficially by using one word for each: SEMANTICS, SYMBOLS, and WHY. Both the strength and the weakness of these books are connected with the fact that each author tries to use one word to mean so much; this gives unity to a number of very diverse subjects, but stretches the meaning so wide that it loses any clear, central, specialized meaning.

The opposition of ease of reading and importance (or accuracy) of content means that anyone looking for information and real help must prepare to do some work. These books are worth every ounce of effort that it takes and are best read in small doses, then thoughtfully digested. It is tempting at this point to push this lesson to teaching in general: the important and really profound ideas take more work to master than the shallow and more frivolous ones. Deep thought can be interesting and even entertaining, but along with it goes work.

"The Power of Words" illustrates what happens when one tries to discuss many different topics, giving fundamental facts, always keeping the discussion popular and free of great mental effort. This book gives the same impression as a brilliant talker who likes to show off and has collected a lot of notes, but has not taken time to think about the interrelations or meanings of his half-understandings. The notes have been sorted into acceptable piles and then the scintillating talk starts, skipping about without pattern, organization or direction; lulling the audience into believing that it is learning something.

If the concept of SEMANTICS is as broad and general as the author says (and his bibliography indicates) then it is certainly a meaningless universality of knowledge which attempts to organize everything by saying that all is semantics! That organizes nothing. In one field where the reviewer feels at home, science, enough inaccurate statements are made to cast doubt on the author's scholarship in all fields.

The first part of the book tries to sum up theoretical results in such diverse fields as communication theory, psychology, sociology, linguistics, general semantics, group dynamics, and cybernetics. It must be granted that these have much in common, but the book fails to find it. The second part of the book wants to apply these principles to such fields as English composition, economics, communism, campaign oratory, mass media of communication, medicine, and education. This purpose is admirable and the examples given are very entertaining, but the connection between the principles and the applications is never clearly established.

Many subjects discussed are far from settled or complete. The greatest benefit would be obtained by stimulating the reader to think about them. But that would be work and therefore not popular, so the author discusses the most controversial questions as though they were completely settled.. Unfortunately, in this case, correct statements are not easy, easy statements are not correct.

The report "Symbols and Values" has some excuse for a disjointed appearance since the lectures and comments which it contains were written by about eighty people. It is an encyclopedia of ideas and stimulating discussion on such topics as myths, religion (Judaism, Roman Catholicism, Protestantism, Buddhism), the visual arts, architecture, literature, anthropology, semantics, physical sciences, social sciences, politics, law, emotions, psychoanalysis, ethics, management decisions, and others. Is it any wonder that 769 pages are used?

The chief criticism is with the possibility of defining "symbol" to include all these fields. Again, it is praiseworthy to attempt to find a universal, coordinating principle under which all knowledge would be sub-interpretation, but such attempts should recognize that something must always be lost as well as gained. After the general word or principle is discussed to show its connections with all such fields as mentioned above, the word has faded and lost any sharpness of meaning it once had; it seems at that point to be a synonym for other general words: idea, thought, concept, archetype, pattern, model, ideal, understanding. "Symbol" has now been stirred together with these; the result may be tasty, but it is still hash. This is certainly not to advise that searching for universals or absolutes should stop, merely to recognize what we destroy in any expression or law which is elevated to that high position.

"Scientific Explanation" does an excellent job by treading a narrower path. The title does not mean merely explanation in science, but a method of explanation which, although developed in mathematics and science, is essential to all subjects. The type of "explanation" suggested is more difficult the further you are from the physical sciences, but the effort required to make a subject fit this pattern of thinking is exactly the effort that will clarify, organize and improve that subject.

This particular book is really a mature attempt to carry out that childish game of "Why?". Batter away at any fact with a repetition of why's and see how soon you get to basic science:

"Europe is East of the United States." WHY?

"Because East is defined as half-way from North to South." WHY?

"Because North and South are easily recognized by a magnetic or an astronomical phenomenon with respect to the earth." WHY?

"Because when electrons line up in a similar direction a magnetic field is detectable." WHY?

"Because each electron is surrounded by a field of force of a certain type." WHY?

"Because certain mathematical equations fit experimental data and predict future events." WHY?

I give up at this point, but although the question is still valid, it is rapidly approaching general philosophy.

The chief criticism of the book is that it needs more examples from science as part of an inductive approach. A casual hint in a footnote that the generality just given is illustrated by light waves, wave-functions, the element carbon, or some other concept just tantalizes the reader and makes him wish for more connections with the physical sciences. It would be asking too much to require the author to display the applications of this theory to psychology or social science, although this would be greatly appreciated (perhaps another book!). Often the discussion stays so close to mathematics that even mathematical models are given as examples of mathematical theories. This is unfortunate if the purpose is to show how this method "explains" *science*.

The greatest benefit will be derived by the reader if he will constantly stop, for long periods of time, and attempt to apply the ideas in this book to some field of interest or of teaching which he knows. Even if the results are not conclusive, they will be cathartic.

You may well be saying at this point, "But how do these books concern me?" If you are interested in education, deny that they concern you, then you are saying you still have no concern for the answers to these questions:

(1) How does my interest, my subject, and my job fit into the pattern of all knowledge?

(2) What are the most fundamental and the most basic ideas which underlie and relate the world of facts?

(3) How are thoughts originated, organized, and communicated?

(4) What is a symbol, a fact, a judgment, a decision?

(5) What do we really expect when we say "Why?"? Without such considerations education becomes mechanical manipulation and memory.

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BOOKS RECEIVED

Administration

THE TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP. Robert Nelson Bush. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1954.

GUIDING YOUR STUDENT TEACHER. Dwight K. Curtis and Leonard O. Andrews. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1954. $5.50.

Elementary Education

LANGUAGE ARTS FOR TODAY'S CHILDREN. National Council of Teachers of English. Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York. 1954.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT. T. W. Richards. Society for Research in Child Development, Louisiana. 1954.

GUIDANCE SERVICES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. Chartwell House, Inc., New York.

THE LITTLE ENGINE THAT COULD. Watty Piper. The Platt and Munk Co., Inc., New York. $1.00.

ANIMAL STORY BOOK. Watty Piper. The Platt and Munk Co., Inc., New York. 1954. $2.50.

THE GATEWAY TO STORYLAND. Watty Piper. The Platt and Munk Co., Inc., New York. 1954. $2.50.

GOOD BOOKS FOR POOR READERS. George Spache. Reading Laboratory and Clinic, Florida. 1954.

A NEW METHOD FOR THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC. Andrew F. Schott. Burroughs Corporation, Michigan. 1954.

ALICE'S ADVENTURES IN WONDERLAND AND THROUGH THE LOOKING GLASS. Lewis Carroll. E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., New York. 1954. $2.95.

HORSES ACROSS THE AGES. Jeanne Mellin. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York. 1954. $3.50.

THE NETHERLANDS. B. G. L. M. Tosseram. Netherlands Information Service, Michigan. 1954.

HOLLAND AND THE UNITED STATES. H. Konigsberger. Netherlands Information Service, Michigan. 1954.

THE STORY OF OUR COUNTRY. Ruth West. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston. 1954.

WESTERN LANDS. Hughes and Pullen. Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston. 1954.

General Interest

THE COMMUNITY AND THE DELINQUENT. William C. Kvaraceus. World Book Company, New York. 1954. $4.50.

NEW HORIZONS IN CREATIVE THINKING. R. M. MacIver. Harper and Brothers, New York. 1954. $2.00.

HUGH ROY CULLEN. Ed. Kilman and Theon Wright. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York. 1954. $4.00.

MANY A GOOD CRUSADE. Virginia Gildersleeve. The Macmillan Company, New York. 1954. $5.00.

HISTORICAL BODYGUARDS. F. C. Avis. Kenion Press Limited, London, England. 1954.

UNIVERSITY AND ITS PUBLICS. Clay Shoenfeld. University of Wisconsin News Service, Wisconsin. 1954.

PUBLIC EDUCATION AND THE FUTURE OF AMERICA. Educational Policies Commission, Washington. 1954-55. $1.50.

INFORMATION FOR C.P.A. CANDIDATES. American Institute of Accountants, New York. 1954.

HEADLINE SERIES. Benjamin H. Brown and Joseph E. Johnson. Foreign Policy Association, New York. 1954. $.35.

THE DOCTRINES OF THE GREAT EDUCATORS. Robert R. Rusk. St. Martin's Press, New York. 1954. $2.75.

THE WORKSHOP AS AN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROCEDURE. James R. Mitchell. Indiana, Fort Wayne: North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. 1954.

THE UNIVERSITY AND ITS PUBLICS. Clarence A. Schoenfeld. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1954. $4.00.

PUBLIC EDUCATION UNDER CRITICISM. C. Winfield Scott and Clyde Hill. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1954. $4.75.

LIFE INSURANCE. New York: Institute of Life Insurance. 1954.

THE AMERICAN LAWYER. Albert P. Blaustein and Charles O. Porter. The University of Chicago Press. 1954. $5.50.

PERFECT SPELLING. Harry Shefter. New York: Pocket Books, Inc. 1954. $.35.

INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. Charles P. Schleicher. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1954. $6.75.

Science

SCIENCE FOR WORK AND PLAY. Herman and Nina Schneider. D. C. Heath and Co.; Boston. 1954.

TEACHERS' MANUAL FOR SCIENCE FOR A BETTER WORLD. Meister, Keirstead, Shoemaker. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 1954. $.96.

HIGHWAY SAFETY AND DRIVER EDUCATION. Leon Prody Ph.D. and Herbert J. Slack Ph.D. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1954. $4.50.

SCIENCE FAR AND NEAR. Herman and Nina Schneider. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1954. $2.20.

SCIENCE FOR HERE AND NOW. Herman and Nina Schneider. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1954. $1.92.

Secondary Education

ANSWERS TO FUNCTIONAL MATHEMATICS, BOOK I. Gager, Mahood, Shuster and Kokomoor. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 1954.

PLANNING TOMORROW'S SECONDARY SCHOOLS. John S. Peters. Stanford University Press, California. 1954. $4.00.

EL CAMINO REAL. Edith Moore Jarrett. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1954. $3.80.

NEW GREGG SHORTHAND FOR TEACHERS. Leslie and Zoubek. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. 1954.

MES PREMIERES LECONS DE FRANCAIS. Francis H. Patterson. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1954. $125

TEEN-AGERS. Gladys Jenkins and William Bauer. New York: Scott Foresman and Co. 433 E. Erie St., Chicago 11, Illinois. 1954. $3.60.

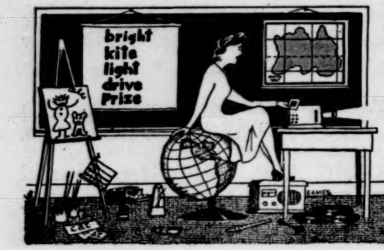
SECONDARY SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. Frederick C. Gruber and Thomas Bayard Beatty. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 330 West 42nd St., New York 18, New York. 1954. $4.50.

FOR THE LAST CENTURY, and more, various elements of materialism have been increasingly oppressive in human affairs. But during the latter part of the same period, materialism was increasingly under challenge. The conflict between materialism and a dawning awareness of the facts about man and the universe is, it seems to me, the basic conflict in which we are involved. It underlies the clash between communism (or any kind of totalitarianism) and the free system. It is involved in most of our unfinished business within our own societies, which we hope to make increasingly free.

When men begin turning with more determination and effectiveness to spiritual solutions for their affairs, we will begin solving the problems of human relations—of war and peace.

Erwin D. Canham, Editor

Christian Science Monitor



MATERIALS

Expedition Via TV—Station WPMT-TV in Portland, Maine is finding out what many television stations all over the country are discovering . . . . that people of all ages are keenly interested in the world of nature that surrounds them.

A program called "*Expedition*" is proving this to the station. George Barker, a science teacher in the Portland school system is writing and presenting the show. The theme of the production is the enjoyment that can be had by exploring the local environment and emphasis is on the beauty and interest of the commonplace. Extreme closeups present the material very dramatically. A screech-owl, a snapping turtle, or a bat, become fascinating creatures when their heads fill an entire T-V screen.

Material is gathered by Barker on local expeditions. It is then displayed and discussed on the program. Here are some of the methods used to present the program:

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Television and Youth—a report from an interested commercial agency, National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, 1771 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., on what TV is doing to the interests, the hobbies, and the activities of young people. Free.

Personality Adjustment of Individual Children—this is the fifth booklet in the series "What Research Says to the Teacher." Published jointly by the Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association, it is written by Dr. Ralph J. Ojemann of the State University of Iowa. 32 p., 25 cents, NEA.

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms has been mentioned before, but the new instructions on page VII on "How to Use Slidefilms and Your Slidefilm Guide" is a real teachers' aid. Slidefilms or filmstrips are especially valuable to the school whose budget allows only a 2c2-filmstrip projector. Free slidefilms are improving in quality all the time—many are in color, and none has objectionable advertising. Write for information to Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. Price of this Guide is $5. They publish a materials guide and a free film-guide also.

Almanac Films, Inc., announces the acquisition of the exclusive 16mm non-theatrical distribution rights to the film ***"Mountain Of Fire."*** The subject is in color and is the story of Mt. Etna in Sicily and the effects of an eruption, on the people, villages and countryside surrounding the Mountain's base.

Almanac has also acquired the world-wide distribution rights to a new 2 reel color film entitled ***"Lion Country,"*** the story of a lion hunt in Borutseland in Central Africa. For full information write directly to: Almanac Films, Inc., 516 5th Avenue, New York 36, N. Y.

PHOTOGRAPH BY RICHARD BEATTIE

To every Uncle in the whole wide world...

UNCLES are more wonderful than anybody, and children can never have enough of them.

When Uncles come to visit you, they bring you candy and presents, and they talk to you like you were a grownup yourself, and they let you do things your mother mostly won't let you do.

My favorite uncle is Uncle Ralph. He's sick in the hospital with cancer, and people say that he is going to die because they found out about it too late. They say that only a miracle can save him, and you can't expect miracles.

But my father told me about an Uncle *he* had once (did you know fathers have uncles, too?) And this uncle was supposed to die for sure because he had something called diabetes. But he's alive now, though he's very old and lives in St. Petersburg, because they found something called insulin.

Maybe somewhere scientists will find something that will save my uncle. Dad says they're trying all the time and they're making lots of progress, but they need more money.

Last year, he says, people gave the American Cancer Society enough so they could spend almost $5,000,000 to try to find new cures for cancer. Dad says that is more than ever before, but it is less than four cents a year for each American. That doesn't seem like much, because I get more than that for gumdrops, in just a week, when I'm good.

I thought if all the other uncles knew about this, then they would send more than four cents—lots more. **Won't** you—? Please.

American Cancer Society

Cancer
Man's cruelest
enemy
strike back
Give

GENTLEMEN:
☐ Please send me free information on cancer.
☐ Enclosed is my contribution of $..............
to the cancer crusade.

Name..
Address..
City.................................. **State**.............

Simply address the envelope:
CANCER c/o Postmaster, Name of Your Town